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ABSTRACT

Research in leadership relevant to school administrators is reviewed and summarized here. The author maintains that most previous authors identified two primary leader functions, concerns, types, or dimensions. These authors include Wortman, who, following in the footsteps of Zaleznick, saw a dichotomy between leaders and managers; Burns, who differentiated between transactional and transformational leaders; Bales, who identified task-oriented and socioemotional leader behavior; Blake and Mouton, who renamed these "concern for production" and "concern for people"; Fiedler, who looked at "task-motivated" and "relationship-motivated" behavior as part of his Contingency Theory; and Hersey and Blanchard, who evolved a "purely situational" model. The author notes that there is still debate over whether leadership characteristics are absolute or contingent. Then current research is examined, specifically that of Hall, who found particular characteristics in those who rise to top management ranks, and Spence and Helmreich, who found that the most successful manager or leader will have the best command of both feminine (nurturant) and masculine (directive, task-oriented) behaviors. The paper concludes that the more school administrators serve in an executive capacity, the more they should act as a leader and the less they should act as a manager. (JM)

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SHOULD SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS BE LEADERS OR MANAGERS?

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(Before I begin I would greatly appreciate your responding to my ten-item "Leadership Questionnaire" (see Appendix). My purpose is two-fold: to involve you directly and actively in some of the subject matter I wish to present and to summarize some of the primary subject matter in a form that may be easier for remembering. I'll conclude the paper with a code for "scoring" the questionnaire.)

Since Zaleznik's (1977) award-winning paper in the Harvard Business Review in which he contrasted leaders with managers, there has been a gradually increasing interest in the notion that fundamental differences may indeed exist between leaders and managers, between leaders and administrators. For example, most recently Wortman (1982) has distinguished between operating and strategic managers in corporations. His thesis is that top managers, executives, should think and act strategically, i.e., long range, whereas managers must be more concerned with daily operations. He laments that executives in U.S. corporations have acted entirely too managerially, that is, overly concerned with short-range operations. This shortsightedness, he contends, has contributed to the decrease in productivity in our country. Others have made similar arguments to Wortman's, yet Wortman casts his points within the context of leader-follower roles. Executives, i.e., leaders, exercise strategic management not only via the more obvious dimensions of analysis, formulation of policy, evaluation, and, of course, planning but in different leader-follower dimensions than operating managers. Leaders must be more charismatic, inspiring, and flexible. They must have the skills to inspire subordinates to accept change, to take initiative and risks.

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Moreover, Wortman argues that leaders must take a highly participative approach to their management of subordinates. While Wortman doesn't state it, he implies that there may be basic differences in personal characteristics between those who rise to executive, leader status and those who remain in the middle ranks.

This implication of Wortman's was Zaleznik's primary premise. He developed in his 1977 paper the argument that leaders and managers do indeed differ in fundamental ways. Not only do leaders behave differently, they differ in personality, needs, and attitudes. Zaleznik draws his differences between leaders and managers across four dimensions: attitudes towards goals, conceptions of work, relations with others, and senses of self. The following table is a summary of what Zaleznik considers the differences to be:

Dimension for Comparison	Manager	Leader
Attitudes Towards Goals	Impersonal; Reactive; Passive	Personal; Active
Conceptions of Work	An enabling process of coordinating and balancing; Limiting options	Projecting ideas into images that excite people; Developing options
Relations with Others	Prefer to work with people; Relate according to roles	Prefer solitary activities; Relate intuitively and emphathically
Senses of Self	Belong to their environment; Depend on memberships, roles, etc. for identity	Feel separate from their environment; Depend on personal mastery of events for identity

In short, then, managers enjoy relating with people, attain much of their sense of self from such activities, and work to maintain order. Leaders are loners, risk takers, and visionaries.

In his Pulitzer prize-winning book James MacGregor Burns (1978) distinguishes between two kinds of leadership: transformational and transactional. There are

similarities between Burns' transformational leader and Zaleznik's leader and between the transactional leader and Zaleznik's manager. More specifically, for Burns a transformational leader:

> recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower. But, beyond that, the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents (Burns, 1978; p. 4).

A transactional leader, on the other hand, is one who views the leader-follower relationship as a process of exchange -- rewards for work, jobs for votes, favor for favor, etc. Burns contends that most leader-follower relationships are of this kind, i.e., transactional.

The work of these three men, Burns, Wortman and Zaleznik, is based on their observations of and interactions and experiences with leaders, managers, administrators, and supervisors, their understanding and interpretation of the research literature, and their theorizing. There have been no direct studies of their premises. Even though Burns uses numerous illustrations to support his points, hard scientific evidence is yet to come. Yet their ideas are reasonable, coincide with others' observations, and, in any case, are provocative. Their ideas also represent newer thinking regarding leadership.

From the psychological literature, the bulk of leadership studies (see, for example, Stogdill's Handbook [1974]) have concentrated on leader traits, and later on, leader dimensions with little or no distinction being made between leader and manager. In fact, Blake and Mouton (1978) with their Grid model tend to use the terms interchangeably. The earlier trait approach to the study of leadership (that is, do successful leaders possess certain personal characteristics that less successful leaders do not?) gradually lost favor due to the inconsistency of findings across numerous studies. Yet, some general conclusions from over 3000 studies are warranted. As Stogdill (1974)

summarized much of this research, the average leader tends to be superior to the average follower in (a) intelligence (but not significantly more intelligent), (b) achievement and knowledge, (c) dependability, and (d) socio-economic status. Leaders also tend to have more of a sense of humor than followers. Stogdill goes on to make clear that

> A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers (pp. 63-64).

The interaction, therefore, of the leader's personal characteristics, the needs and goals of the followers, and the situational demands are the key ingredients to understanding leadership (Burke, 1965).

After World War II the different approach researchers took was to observe and record the behavior of leaders rather than to measure their personality characteristics. By examining actual behavior they took a more deductive approach and attempted to draw conclusions about what is leadership behavior and what is not.

As a result of observing many problem-solving groups and meticulously recording their behavior, Bales (1950) and his associates concluded that two categories of leader behavior were primary - task-oriented behavior and socio-emotional behavior. Bales further concluded that ideally a group should have two leaders, one who directed the task requirements and another who took care of the group's socio-emotional needs.

At about the same time that Bales was discovering these two categories of leader behavior, independent but similar findings were being made by researchers at Ohio State University. As a result of several factor analytic studies Hemphill (1950) identified two primary factors which clearly differentiated leader behavior from other behavior - consideration and initiation of structure. During the 1950's, primarily as a result of

work emanating from these Ohio State leadership studies led by Hemphill, Halpin, Fleishman and Stogdill, among others, numerous investigations were conducted to clarify the meaning of these two factors. In short, what consideration came to mean was person (follower) - oriented behavior, i.e., to consider follower's needs and goals and to recognize their accomplishments. Initiating structure was defined as the act of letting followers know what is expected of them and what they can expect from the leader concerning the direction of and the boundaries for task accomplishment. Thus, consideration addressed the human element and initiation of structure was concerned with the task. Not surprisingly multiple studies show that consideration and initiating structure interact to influence work group performance and satisfaction. Moreover, the most effective leaders are high on both.

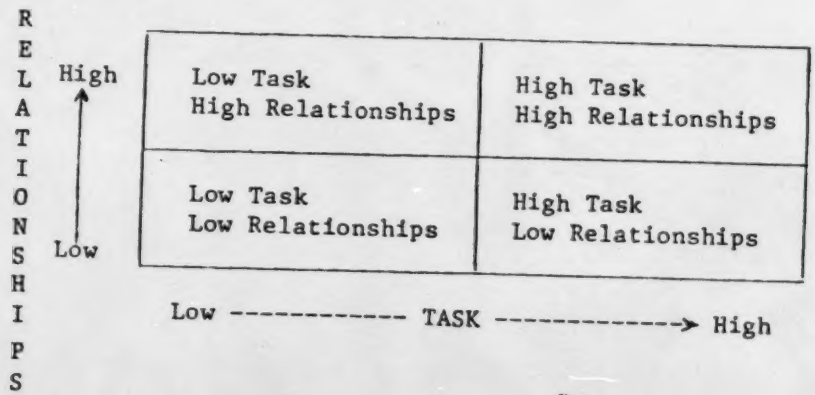
In the early 1960's two psychologists, at the time faculty members at the University of Texas, and aware of the Ohio State leadership studies as well as the work of Bales, thought that these two factors of leadership would not communicate very much to the average manager. In any case, they postulated that managers have simultaneously two concerns - a concern for production or results and a concern for people, their labels for the previously identified factors of leadership - and managers differ with respect to how much they are concerned with the two. That is, some managers are no doubt more concerned with getting results than they are with the people involved and vice versa. They graphically arranged these two concerns on nine-point scales and the juxtaposition on the graph resulted in what they called the Managerial Grid, a two-dimensional model which describes managerial style (Blake & Mouton, 1964). How these two concerns combine for a given manager determines his or her style of management. The greater the concern for production the more autocratic the style tends

to be, and the more the manager is concerned with the people dimension the more the style can be characterized as permissive. Again, not surprisingly, what Blake and Mouton argue is that the more a manager has a simultaneously high concern for both production and people (what they label as a 9/9 style) the more effective the manager is likely to be.

A contemporary of Blake and Mouton, Fred Fiedler, at about the same time, late 1950's - early 1960's, was developing what he later called a contingency theory of leadership (Fiedler, 1967). His theory contends that leadership is contingent on the personal characteristics of the leader and certain situational factors, the latter defined in terms of how much control the leader has over the situation. In terms of personality Fiedler simply divides leaders into two categories - those who are task motivated and those who are relationship motivated. Sound familiar? Not unlike our old friends initiation of structure and consideration, right? Fiedler categorizes situations along three dimensions: (1) leader-member relations, ranging from good to poor, (2) task structure, from high structure to low, i.e., the goal is either clear or ambiguous, and (3) the leader's position power, from strong to weak. The cumulative results of more than 50 separate research studies show once again an interactive effect, that is, task motivated leaders perform best under conditions where the situation is either highly controllable by the leader, i.e., good leader-member relations, high task structure, and strong position power, or under conditions of low control by the leader. The relationship-motivated leader outperforms the task-motivated one when the conditions are somewhere in between the two extreme conditions described as optimal for the task-motivated type of leader (Fiedler, 1974). Without going into too much detail suffice it to state that Fiedler argues, and with

evidence to support him, that effective leaders are those who (a) are fortunate enough to obtain a position which optimizes the relationship between their style or personal characteristics and the situation, or (b) can rearrange the situation to match more optimally their personalities. Fiedler is pessimistic about attempting to change the personal characteristics of a leader. Short of long term therapy he doesn't believe that a person is all that changeable or adaptable. Thus, he is not a situationist nor an advocate of training people to adopt a 9/9 style (participative management) á la Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid. Successful leaders, therefore, according to Fiedler, are those who shape the situations in which they find themselves to match more effectively their personalities. It is far easier to change situations than personalities, he argues (Fiedler, 1976).

Hersey and Blanchard (1969) have developed what might be called a "purely situational" model, that is, they do not really consider the leader's personality or style as a significant variable except as the leader is able to adapt his or her behavior to fit the demands of a particular situation. Using the same two dimensions - task and relationships are their terms - Hersey and Blanchard combine them as do Blake and Mouton but limit their model to four quadrants rather than 81 combinations based on nine-point scales. Thus Hersey and Blanchard's model of situational leadership is depicted as follows:



They argue that at times the leader should place a high emphasis on task while not emphasizing relationships (lower right quadrant) but at other times, i.e., for a different situation, the leader should emphasize neither very much, etc. Hersey and Blanchard add that the primary factor for determining the degree of emphasis the leader should place on these two dimensions is the level of maturity of the followers. Defining maturity mostly in terms of how well followers know their jobs, they state that the higher the level of the followers' maturity the less emphasis the leader should give to task and, of course, vice versa. If all followers are quite mature - their example is an R & D unit, a highly professional and competent group - then little emphasis is needed on either task or relationships.

Hersey and Blanchard therefore conclude that the most successful leader is one who can adapt his or her style to handle different situational demands and ideally the leader should be able to behave equally adroitly in each of the four quadrants of their model.

There are at least two problems with the Hersey and Blanchard model. Evidence that directly supports their arguments is difficult to find. The other problem concerns the two dimensions they chose to promote their position. While it is quite reasonable to argue that a leader should adapt his or her behavior to deal effectively with different situations, it doesn't follow that, for example, ignoring both task requirements and relationships is appropriate for <u>any</u> leadership situation. For a number of years I attempted to chair an academic department consisting of mature followers who knew their jobs - a situation that corresponds to Hersey and Blanchard's lower left quadrant. It is clear to me that if I had not provided the basis for our department's direction and the various tasks,

and if I had not attended to my faculty members relationships with me, I would have paid a much dearer price for my leadership attempts than I did. The point is that a leader to be effective should indeed modify his or her behavior as situational demands differ, but the behavioral differences should vary on dimensions other than task and relationships.

Summary. Considering this past evidence and thinking regarding leadership, one thing is quite clear. The fact that a number of researchers, theorists, and practitioners (some independently) have all concluded that the two primary functions, concerns, leader types, and dimensions are essentially the same is important. Call the two task and human relations, or structure and consideration, or whatever, the consensual validation among these investigations is no small matter. There is still a debate among psychologists and sociologists, however, as to which theory is more valid, a contingency theory or a normative (one best way) approach. Currently contingency theorists appear to have more support. In other words, under some conditions a task oriented, directive type of leader is more effective while in other situations a relationship oriented, people directed leader is superior. But Stogdill's conclusion (noted above) from this massive survey of leadership research is that leaders who rate high in both structure and consideration are more successful, and recent evidence would lean more toward a normative conclusion, at least as I interpret the literature. That is, under most conditions perhaps a participative approach, or certainly a leader who integrates the two dimensions (one is not utilized at the expense of the other), is more effective. Consider the following.

Current Research and Theory

In a study of some 16,000 U.S. male managers from a variety of organi-

zations, Hall (1976) found that those who rose more rapidly to top management ranks were significantly more (a) participative (not permissive) in their managerial style, i.e., an integration of production and people concerns, (b) open and solicitous of feedback in their communication processes and interpersonal relationships, (c) involving of their subordinates in decision making, (d) self actualizing, and (e) apt to utilize motivators as opposed to hygiene facors (Herzberg, 1966) in their motivational approach to subordinates than managers who moved more slowly up the hierarchy or didn't move much at all. In a latter study Donnell and Hall (1980) found essentially the same results with a group of approximately 1,000 female managers.

To summarize Hall's findings, it can be stated with a strong degree of statistical confidence that successful managers are:

- more concerned with the work and job itself than with the peripheral factors, such as fringe benefits;
- more likely to communicate openly and straightforwardly than to be secretive and political;
- more willing to confront other people regarding work-related issues than to ignore or suppress potential conflict;
- more likely to involve their subordinates in problem solving, planning and decision making than to be unilateral;
- more concerned with getting results and achieving goals than with procedure and policy.

These findings may seem self-evident when successful managers are compared with less successful ones. But they are much more than obvious. First, these findings are based on sound, empirical evidence. Second, they are in general highly compatible with other evidence (e.g., Blumberg, 1969; Hollmann, 1976; Likert, 1967; and Marrow, Bowers and Seashore, 1967).

And, finally, the importance of these issues to the business community was confirmed recently when the Wall Street Journal found the Hall study worthy of front page coverage (August 22, 1978).

Another area of research is not as directly related to leadership and management but without question in the same ballpark. Janet Spence and Robert Helmreich, psychologists at the University of Texas, have developed questionnaires which reliably measure a person's (a) need for achievement, (b) degree of competitiveness, and (c) degree of integration of masculine and feminine characteristics (regardless of sex), that is, a measure of androgyny. Their research based on several studies with MBA students, MBA alumni, and scientists points to consistent conclusions. Using as criteria for success grade point average, amount of annual income, and number of mentions in Science Citation Index (an index of how influential one's research has been) for the three groups respectively, their results showed that the more successful the individual (higher grade point average, higher income, and higher scientific influence) the more he or she tended to be high in need for achievement, low in competitiveness, and high in androgyny (Spence and Helmreich, 1978). High in androgyny means that the person is neither predominantly masculine (analogous to task, directive behavior, at least stereotypically) nor feminine (analogous to people-oriented, nuturant behavior), but rather is high in both, i.e., suppresses neither (analogous to the 9/9 style of management). Their findings suggest a dualism of masculinity and femininity rather than a bipolar relationship. Stated differently, masculinity and femininity are not opposite ends of a single continuum but rather both feminine and masculine characteristics are present in all of us regardless of sex. Each of us can be characterized as both

masculine and feminine and depending on the degree of each we could be seen as highly masculine, highly feminine, neither very high in either, or highly masculine and feminine - androgynous.

The findings of Spence and Helmreich concerning androgyny are highly consistent with all the leadership research that has been reported so far and underscore in quite another way the importance of the two key leadership attributes: structure and consideration. The ability to define a task, to give concrete instructions about what must be done, and to direct its completion, certainly fits our traditional notions of masculine instrumental and assertive behavior. However, the ability to know what is going on with the people who work for you, to be sensitive to their needs and considerate of them in carrying out the leadership role is more in harmony with our notion of the feminine characteristics of sensitivity, intuition and caring. Hall's discovery that successful managers are more disclosing and communicative in general (more expressive) and encourage more feedback than less successful ones also reinforces the importance in the successful manager's behavior, of elements that can be viewed as "feminine," yet which most men look for in male leaders. Certainly few successful male leaders reach positions of eminence without having experienced relationships with more senior men in which they benefitted from personal caring and concern.

From this research, we learn that the most successful manager and leader will be the person who has best command of a broad range of both "feminine" and "masculine" behaviors and can call on them as needed. We learn that people who are more rigidly tied to either masculine ("macho") or feminine (overly permissive-nurturant) behavior, will be less successful. The successful manager (and perhaps the successful person in general) is one whose

behavior is versatile, at times assertive, even aggressive; and at other times caring and supportive.

Thus the work of Hall and of Spence and Helmreich add considerably to our understanding of the complicated mosaic of leadership. Their research findings also raise some important implications for the personal growth and learning of men and women with leadership potential. Their different socialization leads them to possess opposite if complementary strengths and limitations. Male managers are more likely to need help in developing interpersonal sensitivity and expressiveness. Female managers will need to cultivate assertiveness, the ability to instruct and direct, and an understanding of power. While large areas of training may overlap, it will be crucial to address these differential needs, and also crucial to assess performance by results, and not by the extent to which the leader follows a strictly "masculine" method.

Whether leader or manager, a combination of a directive and supportive behavioral repertoire is key to effectiveness.

But what about our original question: Should school administrators be leaders or managers? The more school administrators serve in an executive capacity, e.g., a superintendent, the more they should act as a leader and less as a manager. This leader role is important both with employees and with the board as well as with parents. And for me, the model is Burns' transformational leader. Let us now return to the "Leadership Questionnaire." The questionnaire is constructed according to Burns' two types of leaders -- transformational and transactional. In other words, half of the A responses represent one type and half the other, and the same is true for the B alternatives. The key is as follows:

Transformational	Transactional
1. B	1. A
2. A	2. B
3. B	3. A
4. A	4. B
5. B	5. A
6. A	6. B
7. B	7. A
8. A	8. B
9. B	9. A
10. A	10. B

By adding your responses for each of these two columns, you can determine what relative weight you are giving to one type of leadership as compared with the other. Burns contends that most of us are transactional rather than transformational. If you gave more weight numerically to the transactional alternatives, then you are like most leaders according to Burns. Yet his argument is that we need more leaders who are transformational. I personally agree with his argument and recommend in any case that you read his book. His observations, documentations and theses represent a new frontier for understanding leadership.

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L E A D E R S H I P

Questionnaire

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For each of the following 10 pairs of statements, divide 5 points between the two according to your beliefs, perceptions of yourself, or according to which of the two statements characterizes you better. The 5 points may be divided between the A and B statements in any one of the following ways: 5 A 0 B, 4 A 1 B, 3 A 2 B, 1 A 4 B, 0 A 5 B, but not equally (2½) between the two. Weight your choices between the two according to which one characterizes you or your beliefs better.

1. _____A As leader I have a primary mission of maintaining stability.
   _____B As leader I have a primary mission of change.

2. _____A As leader I must cause events.
   _____B As leader I must facilitate events.

3. _____A I am concerned that my followers are rewarded equitably for their work.
   _____B I am concerned about what my followers want in life.

4. _____A As a leader a primary task I have is to mobilize and provide focus for followers' needs.
   _____B As a leader a primary task I have is to ensure clarity of responsibilities and roles for my subordinates.

5. _____A A primary value I hold is honesty in all matters.
   _____B A primary value I hold is equal justice for all.

6. _____A I believe leadership to be a process of changing the conditions of people's lives.
   _____B I believe leadership to be a process of exchange between leader and follower.

7. _____A As a leader I spend considerable energy in managing separate but related goals.
   _____B As a leader I spend considerable energy in arousing hopes, expectations, and aspirations among my followers.

8. _____A While not in a formal classroom sense, I believe that a significant part of my leadership is that of teacher.
   _____B I believe that a significant part of my leadership is that of facilitator.

9. _____A As leader I must engage with followers at an equal level of morality.
   _____B As leader I must represent a higher morality.

10. _____A To me leadership is a collective process.
    _____B To me leadership is the exercise of power.